2: Rock K-5 (1934-) 1947 AF16 Southwest China AF16

634 yao wei-yüan was abolished and a magistrate appointed in his stead. The boundary, where the district is surrounded by the four snow ranges, has not yet been delineated.

"It is believed that the border of the district extends east to Pen-tzu-lan, adjoining the Chung-tien and Ba-thang (Pa-t'ang) districts and the Yang-tze. In the north it extends to Pi-yung-kung 必用工, the Ch'a-li Hsüeh-shan 茶里雪山, and to Yen-ching on the Ssu-ch'uan (now Hsi-k'ang) border. The A-tun-tzu district according to Chinese records comprises about 1,000 square li, and 12,000 inhabitants. There is much snow and the climate is raw and cold. The inhabitants are mostly Tibetans and Mo-so [Na-khi]; a few Chinese, also Moslems and natives of Shensi several ten families, also reside there. There are in all four Hsiang 鄉 (suburban districts), viz., Mou-ting 茂頂 [also written Mu-ting 穆頂], A-tung 阿東, Pen-tzu-lan (Pong-tse-ra), and in the west Chiang-hsi 江西. In ancient days there were two native lieutenants, and two T'u-pa-tsung, who ruled over the peasants.

[311] [65] [191] [777] [463] [438] [135] [34] [197] "Arable land is very scarce in the district, and dry grains only are grown. Therefore taxes which are 10 per cent in Wei-hsi, are only 8 per cent in A-tun-tzu. There are over 10 lamaseries in the district belonging to both the Red and Yellow sects. The Catholics are said to have over 100 believers. Of the inhabitants of A-tun-tzu half are lamas. Outside of the few merchants who reside in the town proper, the people are all farmers and shepherds. Salt is taken by them to Chung-tien and Wei-hsi and exchanged for victuals. The main products imported are tea and sugar, while musk, wool, felts and salt are exported. There are no craftsmen or laborers. Rich mineral deposits are found throughout the district. The town of A-tun-tzu possesses a yamen, a school, and a jail. As the inhabitants are ignorant of the Chinese language, and are unable to govern themselves, a Chinese magistrate was established."

(Translated from manuscript notes attached to an unpublished A-tun-tzu district map in the Government Library in K'un-ming.)

3. KHA-WA-KAR-PO RANGE (MOUNTAIN OF WHITE SNOW)

*133 The finest mountain range in north-western Yün-nan is undoubtedly Kha-wa-kar-po (written Kha-wa-dkar-po or Khwa-dkar-po) which forms the Yün-nan—Tibet border and the western wall of the Mekong valley (in Tibetan, La Chhu, written gLa Chhu or bLa Chhu according to *Dict., Thib. Lat. Fr.*, p. 687).[9] It extends from north to south and consists of five main peaks of which the southernmost, Me-tse-mo or Yung-chih Hsüeh-shan, is the highest. Although it has never been actually measured I estimate its height to be 21,000 feet. Its Tibetan name Me-tse-mo (written sMad-rtse-mo) [10] means "Lower peak," but not in the sense of being lower in altitude, but as being the southernmost of the range. It stands out isolated towards the east of the main range and is the most beautiful peak of the entire chain, resembling an ice palace of a fairy tale, or an enormous mausoleum with gigantic steps and buttresses, all crowned by a huge, majestic dome of

5: Davies G-5 (1894-1900) 1909 AF16 Southwest China AF16
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S P 622 the strength of his claiming to possess supernatural powers found no difficulty in raising a following of 150 men. With these he made a strong stockade on top of a hill, and for a long time defied the efforts of the sawbwa to turn him out. Chinese troops had to be sent for, and, under the direction of Colonel Liu, a successful attack was made, and the priest and most of his followers put to death on the spot.

The Möng Na sawbwa, who was present on the occasion, received the military decoration of the Peacock's Feather for his services. But the La-hsa chief got into serious trouble for allowing the rebellion in his territory. He was deprived of all rank and titles and now appeared in the ordinary dress of a Chinaman without any official robes or hat.

He certainly did not look the sort of man to put down a rebellion, a pleasant unsophisticated old gentleman with none of the energy of his cousin, the Ho-hsa sawbwa. He remarked in the course of conversation that he did not drink liquor much, as he was afraid it might rot his beard!

He was very anxious to go to Burma, but had to wait till his son was old enough to take his place in the government of the state. The Chinese do not allow a sawbwa to leave his own country for any length of time until his son is fit to act as regent.

S P 361 The valley in which the two states of Ho-hsa and La-hsa[1] lie is some 14 miles long and not more than two miles across at the widest point. Every inch of the flat ground is cultivated, and the villages are all built at the foot of the hills, evidently because space cannot be spared for them on ground which is capable of being irrigated for rice cultivation. The soil is poor, and the crop of rice grown is barely enough for the people to live on. Consequently large numbers of men, estimated at 2000 yearly, go out every winter and spread over the neighbouring Shan States and the north of Burma in search of work. Most of those who go out, work as carpenters and blacksmiths, in which trades they have a considerable reputation.

S P [134] [243] [463]

S 101 The chief claim to interest of these two states is that they are inhabited by a distinct race who do not exist

[1] Hu-sa and La-sa in Chinese, and Hotha and Latha in Burmese. The two states are often spoken of collectively as Möng Hsa by the Shans, and Maingtha by the Burmese.

5: Davies G-5 (1894-1900) 1909 AF16 Southwest China AF16

fitted with a handle to wheel along the road. These wheels we found most accurate and satisfactory, and we all used them throughout our two seasons of surveying. Spare cyclometers had to be carried as they wear out in time.

On the 29th November I left T'êng-yüeh by the west gate and crossing a bare ridge by a low gap between two conspicuous peaks, descended into the fir-woods of the plateau country of Hsi-lien.

We slept at Mu-shui-ho, and found the country people extremely civil, a pleasant contrast to the T'êng-yüeh mob. One old gentleman was particularly communicative and offered to be my guide the next day to the mule and sheep breeding village of Lu-ts'ung-shan. We had a beautiful walk there in the morning over undulating ground through pleasant woods of fir and other trees, the properties of different families being marked off by stone walls. The villages are quite hidden away in trees—peach, walnut, chestnut, plantain, golden bamboo, and the *tsung-pao* palm[1]. If a railway is ever made to T'êng-yüeh this plateau ought to become the hill station of Burma. Situated at 6000 feet above the sea in a beautiful well-watered country, I can imagine no more pleasant contrast with the scorching sun of Mandalay or the hot mugginess of Rangoon.

The simple villagers of Lu-ts'ung-shan I found rather timid at first, frightened either of me or of the Chinese soldier who accompanied me. But a more talkative man soon appeared. The sheep, it seems, are worth about two taels each (five rupees, or 6*s.* 4*d.*), and they use their wool for making rugs. They have tried taking the sheep to sell at Bhamo, but say that it does not pay. They cannot stand the warmer climate and want of grass in the Taping valley, and many of them die on the way. At present the mutton for Burma all comes from India, but with a railway to T'êng-yüeh, the want could no doubt be supplied from Yün-nan. The mule breeding here does not seem to be on a large scale. They get their donkeys from the province of Shen-hsi, and pay as much as 80 or 100 taels for them, a large price in this part of China.

Agricultural pursuits are not the only occupation of the

[1] See p. 77.

5: Davies G-5 (1894-1900) 1909 AF16 Southwest China AF16

463 people of Hsi-lien, for in the afternoon at the village of Wan-yao I found pottery works and a manufactory of iron
323 pans. The potter's wheel was made of one round stone revolving over another. The upper stone has a piece sticking up at the top and round this piece the clay is put. The potter then makes the stones revolve by working a treadle with his foot, and at the same time forms the clay with his hands. In three or four minutes he made a plate and two different sizes of cup. When the moulding is finished the things are put out in the sun to dry. Then comes the glazing. This process I did not see, but it was explained to me as follows:—The glazing stuff is made of rice husk and lime mixed together and heated and then mixed with water. Into this mixture the cups are put and are then baked in a kiln. The result is a greenish coloured glaze.

326 I then went on, accompanied by several villagers, to the iron works. Here they had a cylindrical-shaped furnace, three feet long and one foot in diameter, in which the iron
[376] was placed to melt. An ingenious use had been made of a little stream which flowed past the shed, to turn a horizontally placed water-wheel which worked the bellows for the furnace. Two pan-shaped clay moulds are then taken and one is fastened tightly down over the other, both with the convex side uppermost. The furnace is then tilted up a little so that the melted iron runs into a ladle, by means of which it is poured into a small hole in the upper mould, so that it fills up all the space between the two. It is left for a minute to solidify, and then the topmost mould is taken off and the pan that has been thus formed put on one side to cool.

186 While I was looking at this, one of the villagers came running up, grinning all over, and shouted out, "Is this a foreign devil?" He was immediately silenced by the others, and one could not take offence where evidently none was meant. The fact is that Chinamen among themselves nearly always allude to us as "Yang kuei-tzŭ," "Sea devil" or "Devil from across the sea," and many ignorant villagers would be puzzled to find any other name by which to call a European. The origin of this expression, I believe, dates from the first Chinese war of 1842. The Chinese

7: Hu K-5 (934-) 1946 AF16 Southwest China AF16

166 the neighboring provinces of interior China. The influx of these heterogeneous groups of immigrants brought with it many ideas and practices to help in the adjustment of the people to their new environment, particularly in connection with agricultural and forestry land use. This fact helps to explain the present heterogeneity of the agricultural landscape of the Basin.

463 439 Agriculture and forestry are the outstanding features of the economy of the Szechuan Basin. Approximately 85 per cent of the people gain their livelihood from agricultural pursuits. In terms of exports from the Basin, however, the leading item, Tung oil, is a forest product. Most of the other exports are either agricultural or forestry products.

241 312 In so far as agricultural land use is concerned, nowhere else in China except in Szechuan Basin does one find terraced fields so extensively, elaborately, and finely made, and irrigation systems so greatly diversified and ingeniously devised. The Basin is almost literally a country of "millions of minute steps" and a land of "thousands of small ditches." The terraced fields and the irrigation ditches, together with the hard-working peasantry have helped to transform the otherwise hostile rugged Szechuan Basin into a smiling garden.

Other unique features of the Basin's agricultural land use include the age-old but the recently much publicized Tung Shui Tien (winter storage water field) system; the cultivation of Tsai Seng Tao (double-growth) variety rice; the numerous special methods of soil culture, fertilization, composting, and crop rotations; and the various elaborate systems of inter-culture and synchronization of crops.

133 As has been implied, the Basin is a natural unit. Its combination of surface, climate, soil, and drainage is unlike that of any other part of China. In large measure, the interior of the Basin within the mountainous border is made up of hill country which varies from hilly areas of low relief in the south to the fairly high parallel anticlinal ridges in the east and to a border of complex hills at the north. Near the western edge of the Basin, the hills give way to the Chengtu Plain, a broad piedmont alluvial plain, the most productive part of the Basin.

132 Climatically, the Basin has a phase of the "humid subtropical" type of climate.[1] The Basin extends from latitude 28

[1] G. Trewartha, An Introduction to Weather and Climate, Plate I, 1937.

7: Hu K-5 (1934-) 1946 AF16 Southwest China AF16

much from their crops as otherwise they might have realized. The classical example is that of wheat during the world war I, when wheat was in great demand throughout the world at that time and was sold for 2.50 to 3.00 Yuan[1] per bushel in Shanghai. At Chungking, however, only 1,500 miles away from the latter port, a bushel of wheat was sold for only ten cents! There is an old saying in the rural areas here: "Pai li pu fang tsu," literally meaning "bulk (grain) is not sold one hundred li away." This reflects vividly the difficulty and high cost of transportation.

Another astounding example is that many orange growers in the To Valley often let their oranges rot in the field rather than pick them, because it is so difficult and so expensive to get them to market. On the other hand, only 800 moles away, at Hankow, imported oranges are sold for about a dollar (Yuan) for a half dozen.

Finally, also due to the same difficult transportation, it is tragic to see many farmers in the more remote hilly areas let their land lie idle for months on account of the high transportation cost of shipping bulky fertilizers, such as soy bean or tung oil cakes.

7. Mining and Manufacturing Patterns

Approximately less than 10 per cent of the population in the Szechuan Basin are engaged in the mining and manufacturing activities. The Basin's recent rapid development in mining and manufacturing has strengthened its position as a rich self-sufficient geographic region. In fact, mining and manufacturing largely supplement the agricultural and forestry pursuits, and thus, as we shall see later, help to bring forth an increasing efficient agricultural and forestry land-use in the Basin.

With the numerous metamorphic formations, volcanic intrusions, and the Jurassic-Triassic (coal and salt-brine bearing here) formations, particularly in the fringing and the anticlinal regions, the Basin's mineral deposits are abundant and varied. They include both metallic and non-metallic deposits, such as iron, copper, gold, silver, aluminum, salt, coal, petroleum, and asbestos. Among them, judging from the volume of present production, salt, coal, and iron are by far the most important. The

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[1] One Yuan (dollar) in normal times (pre-war) has an exchange rate of approximately one-third of a United States dollar.